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ABSTRACT

Women, with too few exceptions, are hired less often and for less money, get fewer and smaller raises, are promoted on the job less, and are fired more readily than males of comparable ability and experience. In addition, women in the professions (education included) report discriminatory practices in graduate training and while on the job. Counselors, educators, and other helping professions seem to have done little thus far to alleviate this situation. The author discusses intervention strategies for sex stereotyping which are being conducted in the United States. She points to the need for more research in the field and, in particular, to testing out of intervention strategems with greater variety of populations, over longer periods of time, and with stricter and more elaborate controls. (Author/PC)

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WOMEN AS A SECOND-CLASS MINORITY: A CASE FOR CHANGING SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPES*

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It may seem initially strange to some to find women in the United States classified as a minority - since women are estimated to be a numerical majority (i.e., 51%). Yet, eminent sociologists (Reissman, 1969) would generally concur that women in the United States fit the "minority-status" classification and that they tend to be as relentlessly as ever relegated to a "second-class" status in this society.

This postulated second-class, minority-like status of women in the United States has also been well documented by "mounds of statistics" compiled by the U.S. Government Bureaus (1970). These staggering statistics attest further to the limited role and influence women have played thus far in life in the United States. These statistics include such areas as:

Legal Status:

Prior to the recent passage of the Equal Rights Amendment, the only legal right shared by all women in the United States was the right to vote. Since its passage, there are still over 1,000 state laws that discriminate according to sex. In many states, for example, a woman cannot open a charge account or buy property, independent of her spouse. In one state, even a woman's clothes legally belong to her husband. (Gun 1975).

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Income Level:

Nearly one-half of the United States' work force is female, 42% of US women, 16 an older, work. Yet, there is only one economic indicator in which women consistently lead men - the number living in poverty. Even if women who work at full-time jobs the year round earn, on the average, only $3 for every $5 earned by men working full-time, year round. The ratio varies slightly from year to year, but the gap is greater than it was in 1955. Then women's median earnings were 64% of those of men, but in 1970, it has dropped to 59% (Parelli,1973). Another way of saying this is that while women constitute nearly one-half of the US labor force, they receive about one-fifth of this nation's income in wages and salaries (Freeman, 1970).

Occupational Level as Related to Educational Attainment:

Education, the supposedly democratic equalizer, has not guaranteed women in the United States an even entry into the job market. Thus, we find that the average female worker in the United States is as well educated as the average male worker (12.5 and 12.4 years of schooling, respectively), the average woman high school graduate earns less than a man who fails to finish elementary school ($5,580 to $6,043), and the average woman college graduate earns less than the man who dropped out of high school ($8,156 to $8,514). Moreover, in 1970, 19% of working women with 4 years of college were doing clerical, semi-clerical or unskilled jobs; as were 7 percent of women with 5 or more years of college. Clearly, staying in school "pays off" far more for men than it does for women (Parelli, 1973).

Professional Achievement:

the stone of fitness - built for use, solid, strong, and fit for the
[illegible] second-class as that of all women, and especially trained women! Thus, the [illegible] of women in the higher professional categories is grossly disproportionate both to their numbers in the population and to their educational backgrounds. We find that women constitute only 9% of all the professionals, 7% of the medical doctors, 3% of the lawyers and 1% of the engineers. Average starting salaries in each of these fields are lower for women than for their male counterparts. In 1970, the median salary for male professional and technical workers in the US was $11,806; but for women, it was $7,878 (Merrill, 1973; US Dept. of Labor, 1970).

Women in the Professional Field of Education:

Even when women enter more "traditional" professional fields such as education, they have trouble reaching the top! In the field of education, of those receiving degrees conferred by institutions of higher education in the United States, the percentage of those who earned masters' degrees as compared to Bachelors' degrees is 35 percent for women as compared to 56 percent for men; while the percentage of those who earned doctoral degrees as compared to bachelors' degrees is only 1% for women, as compared to 11% for men (Golenpaul, 1973).

In 1970-71, women represented 67% of all full-time public school teachers, 21% of the elementary school principals, 3% of the senior high school principals, less than 1% of the superintendents of school systems, and less than 5% of the chief state school officers (McCabe, 1973). Clearly, even in professional fields supposedly more accessible to women (e.g. teaching), the leadership, influence and power is in the hands of men!

Textbooks:

An examination of early reading texts and workbooks illustrate the pervasive, biasing influences of authorative text material. Tallies of social texts (Child, et. al., 1946; Jacklin et. al., 1972; and Zimet, 1973) have shown for example, that stories about boys outnumbered those about girls by 5 to 2. Boys were portrayed in these stories as inventive, creative, persevering, strong, brave and competitive 4 times as often as girls. The boys were described in multidimensional terms and ranged about the world in varieties of real and fantasized adventures. Girls, however, were pictured as passive, docile and dependent 6 times as often as boys. They were confined to the home or immediate neighborhood and had few adventures either real or make-believe.

Teacher Behavior:

A study of teacher-pupil interactions in several fourth and sixth grade classes indicates that teachers interacted more with boys than with girls in each of the four major categories of teacher behavior - approval, instruction, listening and disapproval - in short, boys received more teacher attention than girls did! When the teachers' disapproval was analyzed, it developed that disapproval for lack of knowledge or skill represented 60% of the total disapproval directed at girls, as compared to 25% of the total for boys (Spaulding, 1963; Wasl, 1973).

Physical Education and Athletics:

In a task force report on education in the state of Massachusetts, published by the Governor's Commission of the Status of Women (Fitzpatrick, 1970), it was found that expenditures for boys' sports out

ren similar expenditures for girls' sports by ratios as high as 100:1 with dollar differentials as high as $150,000 a year! Women physical educators also generally received lower salary increments than male counterparts for identical sports instruction in Massachusetts; with differentials up to $1,000 per year among male and female basketball coaches.

In another study done in the Waco, Texas School District (Weal, 1973), the boys' athletic program provided for interscholastic competition in seven sports, at an annual cost to the District of $250,000. There was no girls' athletic program; girls could enter interscholastic competition in only one sport, tennis - at an annual cost to the District of $900. The District maintained some $1,050,000 of athletic equipment for the boys, while providing only tennis balls for the girls!

Counseling:

In this same Waco, Texas School District (Weal, 1973), it was discovered that by "diktat, counseling, and persuasion, or by lack of alternatives," girls are required to enroll in homemaking and hairdressing (black girls only); and boys in woodshop, auto mechanics, mechanical and electrical repair and construction trades. Students requesting admission to courses traditionally intended for members of the other sex were ridiculed and "counseled" about their inappropriate choices.

In the above-mentioned study of the status of education and women in the state of Massachusetts (Fitzpatrick, 1973); 10% of all Massachusetts schools reported that both sexes were not admitted to all courses. Shop classes were also overwhelmingly populated by males and home economics

courses by females. Furthermore, Fitzpatrick (1973) reported female students in Massachusetts are "channeled" to state colleges, where they constitute two-thirds of state college enrollment - and not to universities - which would give more incentive and more opportunity for graduate and professional preparation.

In academe, women, with too few exceptions to be noteworthy, are hired less often and for less money (and when they are hired, get "steered towards" lower status positions), get fewer and smaller raises, are treated on the job less, and fired more readily than males of comparable ability and experience (Bird, 1971). In addition, women in the professions (education included) report discriminatory practices in graduate training and while on the job. (Astin, 1973; Yates, 1972; Women's Bureau, 1969). And counselors, educators and other helping professionals seem to have done little thus far to alleviate the situation.

Origins and Consequences of Sex Stereotyping

In the public schools in the United States however, as in our society as a whole, we are beginning to examine the ways in which we limit the aspirations goals, achievements, and contributions of children and adults when we view and treat them as members of a group defined by sex, race, or ethnic background, and not as individuals with unique characteristics and potential.

To see the ever-increasing evidence of sex stereotyping practices and their [illegible] effects, a group of faculty members and graduate students at [illegible] Univ. exit, for example, (Acco, 1975, Cun 1975, Kanselaar, 1976, [illegible]son, 1975, Wash, 1974, Shiresht 1975, and Spencer's 1975) have [illegible] on strategies for intervening and modifying these usual emotionally [illegible] sex stereotypic influences. We are now at a crucial phase in

in our struggles against sex discrimination - that of remediation - and those pleasing attempts at correcting past disabling practices stand out as significant in the data in that struggle (See Figure 1).

Hence, presently, we are involved in developing and testing out the relative effectiveness of such strategems as:

...a Career Guidance Project with Role Modelling (Shiraishi, 1975)

...Workshops of Varying Duration & Content (Gun, 1975; Kesselman, 1974)

...Various Discussion Groups & Programs (Dorn, 1975; Speizer, 1975)

...Womens' Studies Courses (Michaelson, 1975; Speizer, 1975)

and with varying populations:

...Fifth and Sixth grade, suburban boys & girls (Nash, 1974; Kesselman, 1974)

...Adolescent, Puerto Rican, inner-city youths (Shiraishi, 1975)

...Junior College students (Michaelson, 1975; Speizer, 1975)

...Teachers-in-Training (Dorn, 1975; Gun, 1975)

...Practicing Fifth and Sixth grade teachers (Kesselman, 1974)

In addition, numerous other supporting and corroborative studies have been or are in the process of being conducted. For example, Balazs (1974) has studied the development of U.S. female Olympic contenders; Balazs and Nickerson (1974) are planning cross-cultural studies of high female achievers; and Mark (1975) is investing variables associated with female masters'degree candidates' continuation in graduate school training.

It is apparent to us from our work to date that:

...readily replicable and valuable materials and procedures (curriculum, workshop units, etc.) are being developed, which will be of immeasurable aid to educators and other professional workers in this area;

...more is being systematically learned about the effectiveness of

of these procedures, and a better understanding of the nature and scope of the problem is being gained.

It is equally obvious to us, however, that much still needs to be done - for example:

- Our populations to date have been primarily limited to junior college students and college education majors - probably highly "change-oriented" groups - and to smaller samples of inner-city Black youth, fifth grade boys & girls and fifth grade teachers. Many more and a wider variety of populations need to be studied.

- Furthermore, our studies to date, for the most part, have not been strict experimentally-controlled studies of the effectiveness of our procedures. Controls utilized thus far have, for example, consisted of equivalent groups who also volunteered for the experience (Korn, 1975; Cho, 1975). Hence, one might assume that both our experimental and "control" groups in many instances have to some degree been self-selected, and more highly motivated than women & men in general may prove to be.

- Our duration of working with and measuring attitudinal change has been fairly limited to date, suggesting a future need to measure these postulated changes over a longer period of time, and with more behavioral indices to corroborate our largely paper-and-pencil attitudinal measures.

The future, hence, holds a multiplicity of exciting challenges and hard work for us. Our evolving paradigms need to be tested out with a greater variety of populations and over longer periods of time. Furthermore, stricter and more elaborate controls need to be applied - and more behavioral, as well as

attitudinal indices need to be obtained. For in the most practical sense, we need to develop strategies that are effective in developing long-range real-life changes in attitude and behavior - if we are to be successful in alleviating some of the paralyzing effects of sex stereotypic practices and pressures.

We in closing invite your continuing interest and your inquiries into our work. We are most desirous of sharing our ideas, enthusiasm, energies and endeavors with you in the invigorating, liberating days which lie ahead for all of us! Come join us in our chosen mission and in our life's work!

Figure I - Sex-Stereotypy Intervention Projects
Populations Studies

Intervention Strategies	Elementary and High School Age Children	College Age Students	Teachers-In-Training	Teachers
Group Awareness Experience	Sex-Role Awareness Program. 6 weeks, 12 sessions (40 minutes each) 5th grade boys & girls Nash, 1974.		Sex-Role Awareness Group Experience, 6 weekly sessions Undergraduate Ed. majors, Sch.Ed.- B.U. and State Colleges Dorn, 1975	
Workshops			Sex-Role Stereotypy Workshop, 3 workshop sessions (1/2 hour each) Undergraduate Ed. majors. Gwa, 1975	Sex-Role Awareness Workshop, 4 sessions 5th Grade teachers Fesselman, 1974.
Courses		Womans' Studies Course Boston Area Jr. College. Spaizer, 1975.		
		2 Womans' Study Courses Boston Area College Michaelson, 1975.		
Programs	Career-Guidance Project 2 weeks, morning sessions, Role Modelling, Field Trips, Discussions, Mod. Puerto-Rican Youth. Shimoshi, 1975.			

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